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ABSTRACT

Expectancy of success refers to an individual's perceived probability of successfully exercising social influence. The leader's expectancy for success consistently emerges from theory and research as an important determinant in the type of influence he attempts to exert on group members. Theoretically, the leader's use of influence will be determined by his expectancy of success, which is shaped by his personal characteristics and the variables of the group situation. To explore this hypothesis, 220 college students were divided into 55 4-person work groups in which one person was randomly designated the leader. The groups performed a task while supervised by the leader. A situational variable within the task was the degree of assembly-line-type routinization each group used in performing its task. Afterwards the leaders supplied information concerning their personal characteristics and their expectations of success, and the workers supplied information concerning the type of influence the leader used. Analysis of variance results indicated that the leader's expectancy of success was not a mediating variable between the leader and the type of influence used or between the situation variables and the type of influence. There were significant relationships found between the leader's work experience and his expectancy for success, and between the leader's expectancy for success and use of specific influence strategies. (DPO)

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Testing an Expectancy Model of Influence Use:

A Simulated Work Group Experiment

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ABSTRACT

An expectancy model of social influence was used to develop hypotheses about the relationship between selected leader (expectancy for success, sex, work experience) and situational (work routinization) characteristics and the leader's use of specific influence strategies with subordinates. Results indicated that: (1) the leader's expectancy for success was not a mediating variable between leader or situational characteristics and the leader's use of social influence strategies, and (2) the leader's work experience and expectancy for success were directly related to influence use.

Testing an Expectancy Model of Social Influence: A Simulated Work Group Experience

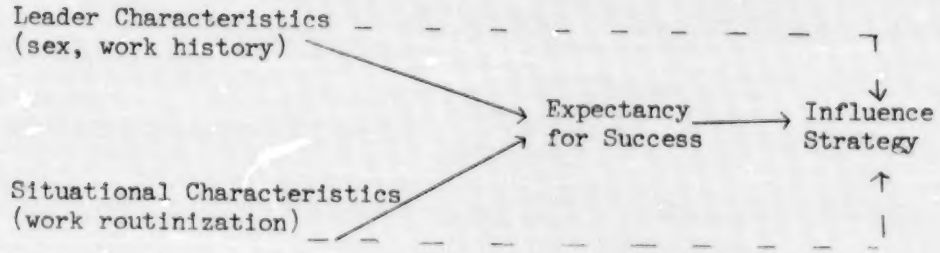
Social influence processes have enjoyed a long tradition and prominent position in social science research. Recently, a growing interest in the influence agent has prompted researchers to study the methods and strategies used by formally appointed leaders as they attempt to direct and facilitate the work of their subordinates (e.g., Instone, Major & Bunker, 1983; Mowday, 1979). The present research reflects this trend by examining the way in which selected characteristics of the leader (the leader's expectancy for success, sex, work and leadership experience) and situational characteristics surrounding the influence attempt (the degree of routinization inherent in the work procedure employed) affect leaders in their choice of a method of influence when supervising their subordinates.

Theoretically, at least, the way in which leader and situational variables affect influence use is through their impact on the leader's expectancy for success. It is for this reason that expectancy models of influence use, such as those developed by Cartwright (1965), Mowday (1979) and Kipnis (1976), have been used in post hoc discussions to explain observed relationships between the method of influence employed and the characterisitics of the influencer and influence situation (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973; Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1970). Surprisingly, however, there is a dearth of research directly testing the linkages presumed to exist in expectancy models. Furthermore, for the leader and situational variables under investigation in the present study, there are compelling arguments in favor of direct relationships between these variables and influence use (i.e., a relationship not mediated by the leaders expectancy for success). The current research was therefore designed to both test hypotheses based on an expectancy approach to influence use and also to examine

alternative sets of relationships suggested in the literature.

The relationships between the variables examined in this research as antecedents of influence strategy use are presented in Figure 1. The solid lines in the figure represent the theoretical pathways suggested by expectancy models, while the broken lines represent alternative sets of relationships among the variables in the model. The relationships suggested by an expectancy approach to influence use are: (1) the relationships between both the leader and situational characteristics and the leader's expectancy for success, (2) the relationships between the leader's expectancy for success and use of specific influence strategies, and (3) the relationships between both leader and situational characteristics and the leader's use of specific influence strategies that are mediated by the leader's expectancy for success. The second set of relationships meriting attention are those that exist between both the leader and situational characteristics and the leader's use of specific influence strategies. These latter relationships are assumed to be direct rather than mediated by the leader's expectancy for success.

Figure 1
Antecedents of Influence Strategy Use



Hypotheses for the relationships descibed above are presented in the following review for each of the variables suggested as an antecedent of influence strategy use.

Expectancy for Success. The leader's expectancy for success consistently emerges from theory and research as an important determinant of influence behavior in downward-directed influence attempts. As it is used here, expectancy for success refers to an individuals perceived probability of successfully exercising social influence. In expectancy models of social influence use, high success expectancies are positively associated with the use of personal, persuasive and/or noncontrolling influence strategies, whereas low success expectancies are positively associated with the use of negative, coercive and/or controlling influence methods (Cartwright, 1965; Kipnis, 1976). Empirical support for these relationships typically comes from correlations between variables supposedly representing the leader's expectancy for success and the frequency with which different methods of influence are employed or endorsed. Interestingly, support for both components of the expectancy - influence use relationship have not been found in the same study. While some researchers report a positive relationship between the leader's expectancy for success and use of personal and persuasive influence tactics (Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1970), others report a relationship between low success expectancies and the use of coercive and controlling methods of influence (Instone, Major & Bunker, 1983).

There are several plausible explanations for the lack of consistent findings across studies, not the least of which include the experimental setting (e.g., laboratory and field), and method (e.g., questionnaire ratings and behavioral observations). Of particular interest for the present research, however, are the ways in which researchers have operationalized the expectancy for success variable. For example, Kipnis and Lane (1962) and Schmidt and Kipnis (1980) used a seven item questionnaire assessing leader satisfaction with specific skills and abilities. Others have used a single item rating of the leader's task related self-confidence (Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1970; Instone, et

al., 1983). Still others have equated the leader's expectancy for success with supposedly related variables, such as the leader's status, self perceptions of power, and expertise (e.g., Tedeschi, 1972; Mowday, 1979). In these investigations it also appears as if the leader's expectancies for successful task performance were measured rather than their expectancies for successfully exercising social influence.

As a result of the variability associated with questionnaire assessments of the leader's expectancy for success, a multi-item expectancy for success measure was developed for the present study. Task and influence related expectancies for success were assessed separately, as were leader characteristics sometimes confounded with the leader's expectancy for success (e.g., experience, sex). It was hoped that these considerations would lead to a more reliable and valid test of the following hypothesis:

1. The leader's expectancy for success is positively related to the use of personally persuasive and noncontrolling influence strategies, and negatively related to the use of coercive and controlling influence strategies.

In addition to its direct effect on the leader's use of specific influence strategies, the leader's expectancy for success has also been suggested as a mediating variable between both leader and situational characteristics and the method of influence employed (Mowday, 1979). Indirect support for this hypothesis comes from investigations in which the presence of an expectancy for success variable was inferred from the existance of bivariate relationships between both leader and situational characteristics and the use of specific influence strategies. For example, the expectancy for success variable has been used in post hoc discussions to help explain observed relationships between the leader's locus of control and use of both coercive and persuasive influence

strategies (Goodstadt & Hjelle, 1973) and between the type of subordinate problem presented and the leader's use of rewarding methods of influence (Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1970).

Despite its popularity as an explanatory variable, there is very little research on the mediating role of the leader's expectancy for success in relationships between characteristics of the influencer and influence situation, and the methods of influence employed. Only two studies have directly tested this aspect of the expectancy model. In the first, Mowday (1979) found that the leader characteristics under investigation directly affected leader preferences for specific influence methods. The leader's expectancy for success did not serve as a mediating variable in any of the obtained relationships. It is important to note, however, that Mowday's study focused on the exercise of upward-influence in three resource allocation decision situations, rather than on downward-directed influence attempts aimed at gaining subordinate compliance with the leader's requests and directives. The second study is more relevent to this latter type of influence situation. Using an organizational simulation paradigm in which leaders supervised the work of bogus workers, Instone, et al., (1983) found that the leader's expectancy for success mediated relationships between the leader's sex and use of coercive influence strategies. Two problems limit the generalizability of these results. As previously noted, the operationalization of the expectancy for success variable in this study was of questionable validity (a single item rating of task related self confidence). In addition, leaders did not directly interact with subordinates. Both of these limitations were addressed in the present study. First, a more comprehensive measure of the leader's expectancy for success was developed. And second, leaders were "on-site" as they supervised the work of their three person task group. Thus the present research attempted to extend previous research in its test of the following hypothesis:

2. The leader's expectancy for success mediates relationships between selected leader and situational characteristics (leader sex, work history and work routinization), and the leader's use of specific influence strategies.

Leader Sex. Investigations of sex differences in leadership style and behavior have increased dramatically in recent years (see Brown, 1979; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Terborg, 1977, for reviews of this literature). There is a lack of empirical evidence, however, for sex differences in the use of specific influence strategies with subordinates by formally appointed leaders. Previous investigations of influence behaviors have typically employed only male subjects (e.g., Fodor, 1973; Fodor & Farrow, 1979; Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1970; Kipnis & Lane, 1962), or they examined sex differences only with respect to a small subset of influence behaviors. Examples of this research include examinations of sex differences in group process studies (Nemeth, Endicott, & Walster, 1976; Piliavin & Martin, 1978), coalition behavior research (e.g., Bond & Vinacke, 1961; Senn, 1967; Uesugi & Vinacke, 1963; Vinacke, 1959), equity experiments of reward allocations (e.g., Callahan & Messe, 1973; Leventhal & Lane, 1970), and bargaining strategy investigations (e.g., Bedell & Sistrunk, 1973; Rubin & Brown, 1975). While this research generally supports the notion that women are more interpersonally oriented than men (cf. Eagly, et al., 1981), it does not address the issue of sex differences in the use of specific influence strategies with subordinates. The present study directly addresses this issue by examining two ways in which leader sex may affect a leader's choice of a method of influence.

The first way in which leader sex may affect influence use is through its impact on the leader's expectancy for success, as suggested by Instone, et al.,(1983), and Kanter (1977). The rationale for this speculation comes from

the work of Lenny (1977). In her review of the literature, Lenny noted that women tend to have lower expectancies for success than their male counterparts across a variety of tasks and settings. As Lenny points out, however, the nature of this difference depends not on inherent personality characteristics, but on situational characteristics such as the specific ability area, the availability of performance feedback, and the emphasis placed on social comparison and evaluation. All three of these conditions typically exist for women in supervisory positions. These positions typically require behaviors that are stereotypically male (Schein, 1973), are often ambiguous in terms of performance feedback (cf. Katz & Kahn, 1978), and are subject to evaluation by superiors, peers, and subordinates. These conditions were an implicit part of the experimental setting in the present research. As a result, the following hypothesis was developed as a partial test of the possibility that it is differences in expectancies rather than sex, per se, that results in sex differences in influence use:

3. Male leaders have a higher expectancy for success than female leaders.

In contrast to a relationship between leader sex and influence behavior that is mediated by the leader's expectancy for success, leader sex may affect the leader's choice of a method of influence by serving as a diffuse status characteristic (Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980; Eagly, Wood, & Fishbaugh, 1981; Eagly, Note 3) Because of extensive prior experience were sex and status are correlated, sex becomes a status cue providing information about one's competence and value across a range of situations. In this approach, the everday status differences of men and women exert an effect on behavior even in settings where they occupy identical roles - as in the experimental laboratory. Since it has been suggested that the influence strategies adopted by low status

individuals parallel those used by women (Kanter, 1977), stereotypically male and female influence behaviors merit attention.

A number of social scientists have examined the sex-role stereotypes surrounding social influence behaviors. This research has generally focused on the ratings of different influence strategies as characteristically male or female (e.g., Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Falbo, 1977b; Johnson, 1978; Tedeshi, 1972). The results of this research suggest that indirect, noncontrolling and/or manipulative strategies based on personal resources are more typical of women, whereas direct and controlling strategies based on concrete resources and independent of relationships are more typical of men. These stereotypes were used to develop the next hypothesis;

4. Female leaders use personal, persuasive and noncontrolling influence strategies more than do male leaders, and male leaders use controlling influence strategies more than do female leaders.

Work History. Experience, generally operationalized as years in a specific position or tenure, supposedly increases a leader's expectancy for success by increasing task relevant knowledge (Hochbaum, 1954). It is on this basis that experience has been equated with the leader's expectancy for success in several investigations (e.g., Kipnis & Cosentino, 1969). Even though the leader's expectancy for success was not measured in these studies, results were discussed as supporting an expectancy approach to influence use. In keeping with the basic tenents of an expectancy model, leaders high in previous experience were more likely to employ personal and persuasive influence tactics than were leaders low in experience. Conversely, leaders with less experience were more likely to employ coercive and controlling influence strategies than were leaders with more experience.

Similar results have been reported in investigations measuring the relationship between previous supervisory experiences and the leader's expectancy for success. In a questionnare study, Kipnis and Lane (1962) found that senior enlisted Navy supervisors were more confident of their leadership abilities than were less senior officers. Unfortunately, this research confounded experience and authority status. Nonetheless, the overall results of the study supported an expectancy approach to influence use. Using an organizational simulation paradigm, Instone, et al., (1983) reported a positive relationship between self-ratings of supervisory experiences and the leader's expectancy for being able to successfully influence workers.

Because of its importance as a possible antecedent of influence strategy use, experience in the present research was assessed with regard to previously held work, leadership, and supervisory positions. Thus multiple aspects of the leader's work history were examined. This operationalization of experience is somewhat different from that used in the previously cited research in which experience was subjectively measured with a single question (Instone, et al., 1983) or determined by job title (Kipnis & Lane, 1962). It was hoped that the broader approach to experience adopted for the present study would result in a more comprehensive test of the following hypothesis:

5. There is a positive relationship between the leader's work history (work, leadership, and supervisory experiences) and the leader's expectancy for success.

In contrast to a relationship between experience and influence behavior that is mediated by the leader's expectancy for success, some researchers have found a direct relationship between these variables. Results from this research suggest that as experience increases individuals come to rely on more jaded and

bureaucratic methods of influence rather than on idealistic modes of influence based on personal persuausion. Such direct relationships have been reported in nurse-patient relationships (Rosen & Pearlin, 1962) and in upward directed influence attempts (Mowday, 1979). The rationale for this change in influence tactic preference apparently has less to do with an individual's expectancy for success than with the expediancy of the influence attempt. Since this relationship has not been examined in leader - subordinate influence interactions, the following hypothesis was proposed:

- 6. There is a positive relationship between the leader's experience and use of coercive and controlling influence strategies and a negative relationship between the leader's experience and use of personally persuasive and noncontrolling influence strategies.

Work Procedure. The rationalization of the work process through improved tools and machinery as well as through the use of scientific management techniques has long been of interest to behavioral researchers (e.g., Braverman, 1974; Pfeffer, 1978). As noted by Kipnis (1982), the majority of research in this area has been on the loss of power and control by employees in routinized work settings (e.g., James, Gent, Hater, & Corey, 1979; Reiman & Inzerilli, Note 2; Rosseau, 1978). Relatively little attention has been paid to the impact of routinization on those who control the work procedures and presumably experience an increase in their power and influence in routinized work settings. This assumption was explored in the present research by experimentally manipulating the degree to which the work situation was routinized.

Because routinization is a situational variable that potentially alters the relative amounts of power and influence available to leaders and subordinates, it is likely that it also affects the leader's use of specific influence strategies. Although this speculation has not been explicitly tested, there is evidence from experimental studies suggesting that the control of power affects the leader's choice of a method of influence. Research conducted by Kipnis and his colleagues indicates that individuals shift from requests and personal persuasion to demands as the amount of power they control increases (Kipnis, et al., 1980; Wilkenson & Kipnis, 1979). The relationship between work routinization and influence use was directly examined in the present research with respect to the following hypothesis:

7. Relative to leader's in less routinized work settings, leaders in more routinized work settings more often employ controlling influence strategies and less often employ personally persuasive and noncontrolling influence strategies.

In contrast to the above, it could also be argued that the degree of routinization inherent in the work setting indirectly affects influence behavior by increasing or decreasing the leader's expectancy for success. Assuming that leaders of routinized work settings have more influence than their counterparts in less routinized work settings, they should have higher expectancies for being able to successfuully influence subordinate behavior. Thus, in keeping with expectancy models of social influence, the following hypothesis was developed:

8. Relative to leaders in less routinized work settings, leaders in more routinized work settings have a higher expectancy for success.

METHOD

Subjects

Two hundred and fifty-two college students in six introductory psychology courses participated in this study during their regularly scheduled class period. These students were randomly assigned to the role of leader or worker in a four-person work group. Complete data for 55 work groups were obtained. Excluded from the study were three groups with less than four members, two groups for which there was an administrative error, and three groups in which a group member expressed concern about the experimental manipulation. As preliminary analyses revealed no effects for classes assigned to the same treatment condition, class was dropped as a factor from all subsequent analyses.

Procedure

Students were told that the study was concerned with the way in which small work groups function in a brief introduction by the experimenter. After receiving their role (leader or subordinate) and group assignments, it was explained that the goal of each work group was to build as many properly constructed model boats and tents as possible within a specified period of time. Group leaders were assigned the responsibility of organizing and supervising their workers to accomplish this goal. Leaders were also given the materials and instructions needed to build paper models capable of passing quality control standards.

While leaders were encouraged to do whatever they felt was necessary to ensure product quality and quantity, they were also instructed to adhere to the

following rules and regulations. These instructions were adapted from Kipnis (Kipnis; Note 1). First, they were not to take part in the actual construction of the models during the work session. Second, they were to control the number of tents and boats constructed so that the group produced no more than 60% or less than 40% of either paper model. And third, leaders were to make sure that the work procedure guidelines outlined by the experimenter were followed. Classes were assigned to one of two work procedure conditions. In the more routinized work condition, an assembly line procedure was described so that every worker contributed to every model made. In the less routinized work condition, an individual assembly procedure was described so that every worker worked alone on every model produced.

Groups were given an eight-minute planning session to practice construction of the models prior to the work session. During the subsequent eight-minute work period, trained assistants monitored the class to ensure that: (1) groups were using the appropriate work procedure and (2) leaders were not involved in model construction. At the conclusion of the work sesssion the assistants also collected the finished models so that they could be counted and checked for quality. Actually, the number of models produced was recorded but the performance feedback given to the group was fictitious. Within each class, groups were randomly assigned to either a success or failure feedback condition. In the success condition, leaders were given the following production summary sheet to read to their workers:

> This group completed ____ (the number actually produced was filled in) paper models of which 2 (handwritten to match the earlier insert) did not pass quality control inspection. Thus, this group successfully produced ___ (to be filled in) models. When compared to the production of other groups in this class, this group performed in the top one-fourth (handwritten insert) of the class.

In the failure condition, the last sentence was changed to read ". . . this group performed in the bottom one-fourth of the class."

Participants were given an opportunity to discuss their experiences at the conclusion of the experiment. In addition, they were specifically asked about the purpose of the experiment and the possible use of deception. Individuals expressing concern over the feedback manipulation were noted and their comments recorded. The experiment was then explained and a supplementary handout describing the experiment in more detail was distributed. Class members were encouraged to contact the experimenter for any further questions.

Questionnaires

Participants were given a packet of questionnaires worded to reflect their role as leader or worker at the beginning of the experiment. Although similar in content, it was primarily the leader responses to the questionnaires that were of interest in this study. Consequently, the only worker questionnaire described in this section concerns worker ratings of the leader's influence behavior.

Leader Characteristics. Prior to their role assignment as leader or worker, participants completed a short demographic questionnaire on which they indicated their name, age and sex. In addition, they rated their previous work experience on an anchored 7-point scale coded so that high scores reflected a great deal of work experience and low scores very little work experience. Using the same format, participants also rated their previous experience with both leader and supervisory roles. These two items were averaged into a single leader experience score. Cronbach's coefficient alpha, a measure if internal consistency (Cronbach, 1965), was .79.

Expectancy for Success. After the experiment had been explained but

prior to the work session, leaders completed a 6-item expectancy for success questionnaire. Using a 7-point anchored continuum, three items assessed task related expectancies. These were beliefs about how successful the group would be in the production of quality models, how the group would compare to the performance of other groups in the class, and how the group would compare to the performance of groups from other colleges and universities. These items were averaged to create a task expectancies scale (Cronbach's alpha = .80). The remaining three items assessed influence related expectancies. These were leader beliefs about how successful they would be in getting workers to do what they wanted them to do, how confident they were in their ability to effectively supervise their workers, and how much influence they thought they would have over their worker's behavior. These items were averaged to create an influence expectancies scale (Cronbach's alpha=.64). An overall expectancy for success measure was also created by averaging the six individual expectancy items for each leader (Cronbach's alpha = .84).

Although the expectancy for success measure was originally developed to separately assess task and influence related expectancies, the two scales were strongly related ($r=.73$, $p<.001$). Therefore, in testing hypotheses associated with the expectancy for success variable, three separate but parallel sets of analyses were performed: one collapsed across expectancies (i.e., overall), and one each for task and influence related expectancies. While the results of these analyses were generally stronger for the influence as compared to the task expectancies scale, they paralleled results in which the overall expectancy for success scale was used. Consequently, only the latter set of findings are presented in the results section.

RESULTS

Leader, Situational and Expectancy Relationships. Zero order correlations and ANOVA's were used to test the hypothesized linkages between the leader's expectancy for success and the selected leader characteristics (sex, work history) and situational characteristics (work routinization condition). While some support was obtained for the predicted relationship between the leader's work history and the leader's expectancy for success (hypothesis 5), none of the other hypothesized relationships were significant (hypotheses 3 and 8).

As predicted in hypothesis 5, leaders rating themselves high in work experience also tended to have higher expectancy for success ratings than did leaders rating themselves low in work experience ($r=.30$, $p<.001$). The relationship between leader ratings of leadership experience and the leader's expectancy for success was not significant.

No support was obtained for a difference in the leader's expectancy for success as a result of the leader's sex (hypothesis 3) or work routinization condition (hypothesis 8). A 2 (leader sex) X 2 (work routinization condition) ANOVA with the leader's expectancy for success as the dependent variable failed to yield significant interaction or main effects. Thus male leaders ($x=24.34$) did not have higher expectancies for success than female leaders ($x=24.87$), nor did leaders in assembly line conditions ($x=23.80$) have higher expectancies for success than leaders in individual assembly ($x=25.66$) conditions.

Expectancy and Influence Strategy Relationships. To test hypothesis 2, zero-order correlations between the leader's expectancy for success and both leader and worker reports of social influence

behaviors were examined. Specifically, a positive relationship between expectancy for success and the use of positive and/or noncontrolling influence strategies and a negative relationship between expectancy for success and negative and/or controlling influence strategies, were expected. In support of the first portion of hypothesis 2, there were significant and marginally significant positive relationships between the leader's expectancy for success and the leader's self-reported use of polite ($r=.43$, $p<.001$) and group decision ($r=.20$, $p<.06$) influence strategies. While these results were not replicated when worker ratings of leader influence behavior were used, a positive relationship between the leader's expectancy for success and worker descriptions of their leader's use of positive sanctions was obtained ($r=.24$, $p<.05$). Together these results suggest that leaders with high success expectancies more often use positive and noncontrolling strategies with their workers than do leaders with lower success expectancies. No support was found for the prediction that the leader's expectancy for success would be negatively related to the leader's use of either negative or controlling influence strategies.

Leader, Situational and Influence Relationships. Zero order correlations and ANOVA's were used to test relationships between the selected leader and situational characteristics and the leader's use of specific influence strategies. These analyses resulted in support for a relationship between the leader's work history and use of social influence (hypothesis 6). No support was found for the predicted relationships between the leader's sex or routinization condition and the leader's use of specific influence strategies (hypotheses 4 and 7).

In support of hypothesis 6, leaders rating themselves high in leadership experience more often reported using controlling influence

strategies than did leader's rating themselves low in leadership experience ($r=.37$, $p<.01$). Contrary to hypothesis 6, however, there were positive rather than negative relationships between the leader's work history and the use of positive and noncontrolling influence strategies. Compared to leaders rating themselves low on leader and work experience, leaders rating themselves high on leader experience more often described themselves as using positive sanctions ($r=.25$, $p\leq.05$), and leader's rating themselves high on work experience were more often described as using positive sanctions (as reported by both leaders, $r=.27$, $p<.05$, and workers, $r= .31$, $p<.01$) and polite requests (as reported by leaders, $r=.37$, $p<01$).

Lastly, a series of 2 (leader sex) X 2 (work routinization) ANOVA's with the five influence categories as dependent variables failed to yield significant main or interaction effects. Thus no support was obtained for hypothesis 4, that females would more often use persuasive and noncontrolling influence strategies while males would more often use controlling influence strategies. Also, there was no support for hypothesis 7 as leaders in more routinized work procedure conditions did not more often use controlling influence strategies and less often employ persuasive and noncontrolling strategies than did their counterparts in less routinized work procedure conditions.

Expectancy as a Mediating Variable. To more fully examine the role of the leader's expectancy for success in the relationship between the selected leader and situational characteristics and influence use, the zero order correlations between these variables were compared to partial-order correlations holding constant the leader's expectancy for success. If leader or situational characteristics affect the use of specific influence categories through their impact on the leader's

expectancy for success, as suggested by hypothesis 1, no relationships between leader or situational characteristics and influence ratings would be expected when the leader's expectancy for success is held constant. Alternatively, if the relationship between leader or situational characteristics and influence strategy use is direct, as suggested in hypothesis 4, 6, and 7, significant correlations between both leader and situational characteristics and influence use would be expected even after partialling out expectancy for success effects.

As can be seen in Table 2, the expectancy for success variable did not appear to mediate relationships between leader or situational characteristics and the use of specific influence strategies. While a number of significant and marginally significant zero-order relationships between leader characteristics and influence use were obtained, neither the magnitude nor the level of significance attained altered substantially when expectancy for success effects were controlled. The only exceptions to this generalization occurred with the work rating variable and the leader's use of both positive sanctions and polite requests. Even here, however, the expectancy for success had only a moderate effect. At best, the leader's expectancy for success accounted for only 6% of the explained variance in the relationship between work experience ratings and leader descriptions of their use of polite requests ($r=.37$, $p<.01$, and $pr=.28$, $p<.05$), and 3% of the explained variance in the relationship between the work rating variable and the worker descriptions of the leader's use of positive sanctions ($r=.31$, $p< .01$, and $pr=.25$, $p<.05$).

Influence Strategy Predictors. To examine the relative contributions of situational and leader characteristics on the leader's use of specific influence strategies, ten multiple regression analyses

were performed. The dependent measures in these analyses were the five influence categories. Two sets of analyses for each influence category were conducted: one based on leader self-reported strategy use and one based on worker descriptions of their leader's influence strategy use. The independent variables in these regressions were the leader's sex, work rating, leader rating, expectancy for success and work procedure (i.e., routinization) condition. Multiplicative interaction terms were excluded from the regression equation. Not only were interactions not a part of the hypotheses proposed in this study, but their inclusion would have affected the accuracy of the estimation and the power of the tests of effects for the variables under investigation (Lewis-Beck, 1980).

The order of inclusion for the independent variables in the regression equation was determined by the respective contribution of each variable to the explained variance in the dependent variable. In this stepwise approach, the variable that accounted for the greatest amount of variance entered first, the variable that accounted for the greatest amount of variance in conjunction with the first was entered second, and so on.

As can be seen in Table 3, the leader and situational variables examined in this study significantly contributed to the explained variance for only one worker-reported influence category and three leader-reported influence categories. As would be expected, the results in Table 3 closely parallel those found in Table 2 for the variable sets common to the two sets of analyses.

The results for both the leader and worker descriptions of the leader's use of positive sanctions were similar. In both cases, leader ratings of prior work experience accounted for the greatest amount of explained variance (8%-9%) in the use of this influence category. While

the leader's expectancy for success entered the regression equation second for both leader and worker reported use of this influence category, it's inclusion was only significant in the overall regression equation for worker descriptions of their leader's use of positive sanctions. However, even in this influence category the addition of this variable resulted in an incremental increase in the explained variance of only 3%.

The remaining significant results concerned only leader descriptions of their own influence behavior. Several variables contributed to the explained variance in both the polite requests and controlling influence categories. In the use of polite requests, the leader's expectancy for success accounted for 18% of the explained variance. The addition of the leader's work rating to the regression equation resulted in a 7% incremental increase in the amount of variance explained. In short, one quarter of the variance in the leader's self-reported use of polite requests can be attributed to the additive effects of the expectancy for success and work rating variables.

In the leader's use of controlling influence strategies, the leader's experience rating entered the equation first, accounting for 9% of the explained variance. Although significant in the overall regression equation, the addition of the leader's sex and work experience ratings resulted in only a 1% increase in the amount of variance explained.

DISCUSSION

A central assumption in expectancy models of social influence is that the leader's expectancy for success mediates relationships between both leader and situational characteristics and the leader's use of specific influence strategies. This assumption was not supported in the present study. Nonetheless, several relationships postulated to exist on the basis of expectancy approaches to social influence use were obtained. For example, there were significant relationships between the leader's work history and the leader's expectancy for success, and between the leader's expectancy for success and use of specific influence strategies. Furthermore, several bivariate relationships between leader characteristics and influence use that have previously been offered as indirect support for an expectancy approach to infuence use were obtained. When the leader's expectancy for success was statistically controlled, these relationships were not markedly reduced as would be expected if the sexpectancy for success variable were a mediating factor. Had not the mediating role of the leader's expectancy for success been explicitly examined, the results of this research may have erroneously been offered as additional support for an expectancy approach to social influence use.

Even though the leader's expectancy for success was not an important mediating variable in the relationships examined in this research, this should not be interpreted to mean that it is an unimportant consideration in the influence process. Rather, the leader's expectancy for success may impact other aspects of the influence process, such as the initial decision about whether or not influence

will be attempted (Mowday, 1975; Instone, et al., 1983). Once the decision is made, however, other factors, such as personal characteristcs of the leader, may directly affect the selection of specific influence strategies (e.g., Falbo, 1977a; Mowday, 1979). Alternatively, the leader's expectancy for success may simply be a leader characteristic directly affecting influence strategy selection rather than a mediating variable in the influence selection process.

In the present study, the leader's expectancy for success did emerge as an important leader characteristic correlated with the use of positive and noncontrolling influence tactics. While a positive relationship between these variables appears in theoretical (Gamson, 1968) as well as empirical work on upward-directed influence attempts (Mowday, 1979), results of this study extend this relationship to downward-directed leader-subordinate influence interactions. In short, leaders with high success expectancies were more likely to use influence strategies that enlisted and positively reinforced the efforts of their workers than were leaders with lower expectancies for success.

The other leader characteristic directly affecting influence strategy use was the leader's work history - a subjective self rating of previous work and leader experiences. Specifically, leaders rating themselves as high on leader experience more often described themselves as using controlling influence strategies than did their counterparts with lower leader experience ratings. These results are consistent with previous research indicating a shift to more controlling influence tactics as experience increases (Kipnis, 1976; Rosen & Pearlin, 1972).

Interestingly, the leader's work experience rating had a very different relationship to the use of social influence than did the leader's leader experience rating. Leaders rating themselves high on

work experience more often employed positive and noncontrolling influence tactics than did leaders with lower work experience ratings. These results generally parallel those found for the relationship between the leader's expectancy for success and use of social influence. Apparently the leader's work experiences and expectancy for success have similar, although relatively independent, effects on the leader's use of positive and noncontrolling influence tactics.

The predicted negative relationship between the leader's expectancy for success and use of negative or controlling influence tactics was not obtained (Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1970; Kipnis & Lane, 1962). While the failure to replicate results of previous work in this area may be due to a number of factors, the most likely explanation concerns the type of influence strategies available for the leader to use. In the organizational simulation experiments and field settings where the hypothesized relationships have been supported, leaders typically had access to a wide range of institutionally endowed influence methods. These included the control of economic sanctions, ecological control, and the ability to terminate subordinates for poor performance. In the present study, however, leaders had only legitimate and personally-based influence strategies at their disposal. The relatively weak nature of these influence methods may have been responsible for the lack of significant results in this area.

Contrary to expectations, no differences between male and female leaders were found on either the expectancy for success or influence use measures. This is consistent with suggestions that sex differences in influence behavior are minimal or nonexistant when access to power resources is held constant and expectancies for success are equivalent (Instone, et al., 1983; Kanter, 1977). Both conditions were present in

the current investigation. First, formal status inequalities (cf. Eagly, Note 3) were eliminated as males and females were in identical supervisory positions. In these positions only legitimate and personal power resources were available. Second, male and female leaders reported similar task and influence related expectancies for success. Since previous research on leader sex differences in expectancies and influence behavior has been limited to simulation experiments with fictious workers (e.g., Instone, et al., 1983; Ayers-Nachman, Cann, Reed & Horne, 1982), the present study extends findings of no differences to short-term face-to-face interactions.

Lastly, the degree of work routinization inherent in the work procedure employed did not affect the leader's expectancy for success or influence behavior. To assess whether there were differences in the perceived level of routinization in the assembly line and individual assembly work procedures, a questionnaire describing several different work procedures was administered to individuals comparable to the ones employed in this study. All respondents perceived the assembly line procedure to be more routinized than the individual assembly procedure. In actual operation, however, these two conditions may not have been distinctly different given the rather small size of the work group and the short term nature of the work session. Also, the routinization manipulation may have served to decrease rather than increase leaders' power relative to their subordinates. This is because the planning and organizational control of the work procedure was determined by the experimenter rather than by the leader. Additional research in settings where the level of work routinization is more differentiated and where leaders more clearly control the means of production seems warranted.

As a final note on the antecedents of influence use, there was

relatively little replicability in results associated with leader and worker influence use descriptions. With the exception of relationships surrounding the leader's use of positive sanctions, relationships between leader characteristics, expectancies and influence use were primarily associated with leader descriptions of their own influence behavior. Because of problems associated with such within subject results, these relationships need to be interpreted with caution.

The overall results of this study are useful in that they underscore the need for additional research on the antecedents of influence use for formally appointed leaders. First, the variance left unexplained when the mediating expectancy for success variable was held constant suggests that additional variables need to be considered in future investigations. Likely candidates include the timeliness of the influence attempt, organizational norms governing the influence process and characteristics of the target (Falbo, 1977a; Goodstadt & Kipnis, 1976; Kipnis & Cosentino, 1969; Rosenberg & Pearlin, 1962; Wilkinson & Kipnis, 1978). Second, since influence is an interactional process, more attention needs to be paid to the duration of influence interactions. It is likely that one-shot influence attempts will differ from more long term interactions. As an example, the present study may have differed from previous research primarily because of its intermediate length. And third, additional models of the influence process are needed both to integrate and extend previous research (e.g., Kipnis, 1976; Schein, 1977). Most importantly, such models need to go beyond the bivariate relationships typically reported to a consideration of more complex processes in influence interactions.

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Table 1

Means, ronbach's Alpha and Zero-Order Correlations Between Leader and Worker Reported Influence Categories

	Leader Reported		Worker Reported		
Influence Category	alpha	$\bar{x}$	alpha	$\bar{x}$	r
Positive Sanctions	.73	5.15	.66	5.17	.53***
Noncontrolling Strategies					
Group Decisions	-	4.71	-	4.93	.36**
Polite Requests	-	5.25	-	5.63	.34**
Negative Sanctions	-	1.85	-	1.58	.20
Controlling Strategies	.80	3.67	.79	3.66	.33**

**$p \leq .01$; ***$p \leq .001$

Table 2

Zero and Partial-Order Correlations Holding Expectancy for Success Constant Between Leader Variables and Influence Categories as Rated by Leaders (L) and Workers (W)[a]

	Leader Variables			
	Expectancy for Success	Sex	Work Ratings	Leader Ratings
Expectancy for Success (L)	-	.05	.30***	.19+
Influence Categories				
Positive Sanctions (L)	.17	.07 (.06)	.27* (.24)*	.25* (.22)+
Positive Sanctions (W)	.24*	.09 (.08)	.31** (.25)*	.12 .08
Noncontrolling Strategies				
Group Decisions (L)	.20+	.12 (.11)	.15 (.10)	.02 (-.02)
Group Decisions (W)	.04	.22+ (.22)+	.21+ (.21)+	-.09 (-.10)
Polite Requests (L)	.43***	.02 (-.01)	.37** (.28)*	.01 (-.09)
Polite Requests (W)	.08	-.08 (-.08)	.18+ (.16)	.07 (.05)
Negative Sanctions (L)	.00	.14 (.14)	-.02 (-.03)	.14 (.14)
Negative Sanctions (W)	.17	-.00 (-.01)	-.20+ (-.26)*	.11 (.08)
Controlling Strategies (L)	.11	.03 (.02)	.20+ (.18)+	.37** (.36)**
Controlling Strategies (W)	.18+	.06 (.05)	.04 (-.02)	.08 (.05)

[a]Partial order correlation are in parentheses.

+$p \leq .10$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$

Table 3

Significant Results for Multiple Regression Analyses Using Leader and Situational Characteristics[a] as Predictors of Social Influence Use[b]

Dependent Measures	Step	Independent Variable	Entry F	Multiple R	R^2	B	Overall
Positive Sanctions (L)	1	Work Rating	4.33*	.27	.08	.27	4.33*
Positive Sanctions (W)	1	Work Rating	5.43*	.30	.09	.26	5.43**
	2	Expectancy	1.37	.34	.12	.16	3.42*
Polite (L)	1	Expectancy	12.04***	.43	.18	.37	12.04***
	2	Work Rating	4.42*	.50	.25	.31	8.62***
	3	Leader Rating	1.63	.52	.27	-.16	6.36***
	4	Sex	.02	.52	.27	-.02	4.68**
Control (L)	1	Leader Rating	8.46**	.37	.14	.35	8.46**
	2	Work Rating	.49	.38	.15	.09	4.43*
	3	Sex	.20	.39	.15	-.06	2.98*

[a]Leader characteristics were sex (1=male, 2=female), age, work rating, leader rating and the leader's overall expectancy for success. The situational characteristic was the routinization condition (1= individual assembly, 2=assembly line).

[b]The use of influence strategies was determined by leader self-reports (L), and worker descriptions of the leader (W).

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$